

## Simulating competing risks data in survival analysis

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### SUMMARY

Competing risks analysis considers time-to-first-event ('survival time') and the event type ('cause'), possibly subject to right-censoring. The cause-, i.e. event-specific hazards, completely determine the competing risk process, but simulation studies often fall back on the much criticized latent failure time model. Cause-specific hazard-driven simulation appears to be the exception; if done, usually only constant hazards are considered, which will be unrealistic in many medical situations. We explain simulating competing risks data based on possibly time-dependent cause-specific hazards. The simulation design is as easy as any other, relies on identifiable quantities only and adds to our understanding of the competing risks process. In addition, it immediately generalizes to more complex multistate models. We apply the proposed simulation design to computing the least false parameter of a misspecified proportional subdistribution hazard model, which is a research question of independent interest in competing risks. The simulation specifications have been motivated by data on infectious complications in stem-cell transplanted patients, where results from cause-specific hazards analyses were difficult to interpret in terms of cumulative event probabilities. The simulation illustrates that results from a misspecified proportional subdistribution hazard analysis can be interpreted as a time-averaged effect on the cumulative event probability scale. Copyright © 2009 John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

**KEY WORDS:** multistate model; cause-specific hazard; subdistribution hazard; latent failure time; model misspecification

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Competing risks are an extension of classical survival analysis, where we observe one of a finite number of different event types ('cause') in addition to the time to the first event occurring ('survival time'), possibly subject to right-censoring. Modern competing risks analysis is based on the cause-, i.e. event-specific hazards, which are empirically identifiable and completely determine the competing risks process [1–3]. However, simulation of competing risks data seldom appears to be based on these key modelling quantities. Rather, the so-called latent failure time model [4] is used to generate data, where survival time and cause are modelled as arising from the minimum of latent failure times corresponding to the different causes. This model has been heavily criticized for lack of plausibility in biomedical situations, but, even more importantly, for a non-identifiability problem, as the dependence structure between the postulated latent failure times cannot be identified from the observable data [2, 3, 5, 6].

We found that 60 per cent of the articles published in *Statistics in Medicine* since 2000 that used simulations to study competing risks were built on the latent failure time model in order to generate data. Only 12 per cent of the articles based their simulation designs on cause-specific hazards; all of these articles considered constant cause-specific hazards only, which will be unrealistic in many medical situations. We found a similar picture for articles published in *Biometrics*, *Biometrika*, *Lifetime Data Analysis* and *Computational Statistics and Data Analysis* since 2000. Details of the literature research are reported in Section 2.

The aim of this article is to explain how competing risks data can be simulated cause-specific hazards driven, where the hazards are allowed to be time-dependent. The simulation design is as easy as any other, exactly reflects the way competing risks data are analysed, and being hazard-based, it corresponds to the way competing risks data occur over time. Unlike latent failure time-based simulation, we will not need to specify unverifiable dependence structures.

A simulation design building on the fact that the cause-specific hazards completely determine the distribution of competing risks data cannot be novel per se, but is an inherent part of this mathematical result. Presenting the algorithm, however, is relevant, as we will see from the literature research that the one algorithm that builds on the same quantities as modern competing risks analyses is hardly used.

As another fundamental strength, the simulation design generalizes straightforwardly to more complex multistate models [1, 7], e.g. to an illness–death model with recovery and possibly competing endpoints. As the number of transitions will be random in such a model, latent failure time-based simulation will become difficult to tract analytically, but hazard-based simulation is still straightforward. Such a model may also be used to simulate survival or competing risks data conditional on time-dependent covariates, using a certain correspondence between discrete covariates and multistate models [8]. In fact, this algorithm has been mentioned as a side note on generating multistate bootstrap samples in a more theoretical article on transition probabilities in a Markov renewal model by Dabrowska [9], and this article is referred to in a recent article by Fiocco *et al.* on reduced-rank Cox models in a multistate model [10]. We wish to note that the general multistate algorithm also is an inherent part of the more general mathematical result that the transition hazards completely determine the distribution of a multistate model [11, Theorem II.6.7], and that our approach to competing risks is based on multistate models.

As an example, we will use the recommended simulation design to study the least false parameter [12] of a misspecified proportional subdistribution hazards model, if, in fact, proportional cause-specific hazards models hold. This example will serve two purposes: First, it illustrates how

natural our proposed simulation design is, as it directly picks up from the quantities analysed in the competing risks setting. Second, the simulation specifications have been chosen to illustrate the interpretational difficulties frequently encountered in competing risks, motivated by data on infectious complications in stem-cell transplanted patients [13]. Proportional cause-specific hazards modelling is the standard regression model of choice, but results may be difficult to interpret in terms of the cumulative event probabilities. This difficulty has led to the development of the proportional subdistribution hazards model [14], which offers a synthesis of single cause-specific hazards analyses. In the absence of time-dependent covariates, this synthesis is interpretable in terms of the cumulative event probability [15]. However, under a proportional cause-specific hazards specification, this model will be misspecified [16]. We illustrate that results from the model are still useful as a time-averaged effect on the cumulative event probability scale [17].

The motivation for this study comes from applied medical research: The aforementioned interpretational difficulties have led to results from both cause-specific hazards analyses and from subdistribution hazards analyses being reported side by side. Examples come, among other fields, from cancer [18], AIDS [19] and also the methodological literature [20]. As proportional cause-specific and proportional subdistribution hazards models preclude one another, at least one approach implicitly reports a time-averaged effect. In our simulations, we have assumed the proportional cause-specific hazards models to be correctly specified, as the competing risks situation does not impose any further theoretical restrictions on these models. In contrast, assuming proportional subdistribution hazards models restricts the regression coefficient from one model given the regression coefficient from the competing subdistribution model. Hence, it seemed natural to view the subdistribution analysis as a time-averaged synthesis.

The aim of our simulation is twofold: First, we will use simulations to numerically approximate the least false parameter, i.e. the time-averaged synthesis, as the least false parameter is only implicitly given. Second, we will investigate how well the least false parameter may be estimated in a concrete study setting. These results are of independent interest, given the fact that the proportional subdistribution hazards model has attracted quite some interest recently, see in addition [21–25]. We note that using simulation for numerical approximation, if a consistent estimate is available, is a classical textbook example, e.g. [26, Chapter I].

The article is organized as follows: The results of our literature research are given in Section 2. Section 3 introduces the competing risks multistate model and the cause-specific hazards-based simulation design. Example and Discussion are in Sections 4 and 5, respectively. We also describe a cause-specific hazards-driven algorithm to generate competing risks data following a proportional subdistribution hazards model in the Appendix; this algorithm appears to be new to the literature.

We note that Section 3 introduces the distinct causes of failure as values of exactly one random variable, such that the question of dependent or independent competing risks does not apply. Also, introduction of the subdistribution hazard framework and the notion of the least false parameter as well as illustration of the interpretational difficulties that often come with competing risks data are deferred to Section 4. Both Sections 3 and 4 emphasize the interpretational aspect, as it may have been the difficulties inherent to competing risks data that have led to simulations being based on latent failure times in the past, without, of course, solving these difficulties.

For ease of presentation, we consider a competing risks model with two competing events only. The simulation design straightforwardly extends to more than two competing risks, as indicated in Section 3. The analysis of the least false parameter in Section 4 is not affected by the restriction to two competing risks, as the subdistribution hazards model analyses one event of interest, and all other risks may be subsumed into one competing event.

We will write CSH for cause-specific hazard, SH for subdistribution hazard and CIF for the cumulative incidence function, i.e. the expected proportion of individuals experiencing a certain event as time progresses, in the following.

## 2. RESULTS OF THE LITERATURE RESEARCH

We first conducted a literature research in *Statistics in Medicine* using the journal's web page <http://www3.interscience.wiley.com/cgi-bin/jhome/2988/>, last accessed on September 24th, 2008. We found 60 articles that featured the term 'competing risk' or 'competing risks' in the title and/or in the key words. Twenty-six (43.3 per cent of 60) articles used simulation studies, 25 of these have been published after and including the year 2000. Fifteen (57.7 per cent of 26) articles based their simulation design on the latent failure time approach. A surprisingly small number of only four (15.4 per cent) [27–30] articles generated data CSH-driven; however, all four articles used constant hazard models only. While constant hazard models are the easiest and therefore the best understood, they will be unrealistic in many medical situations. Still, Bender *et al.* [31] argue in a recent *Statistics in Medicine* article on survival times simulation that time-dependent hazards 'seem to be underutilized'. Three (11.5 per cent) articles [32–34] simulated data by first deciding how many individuals fail from each competing event at all and subsequently simulating the survival time conditional on the cause. Finally, four (15.4 per cent) articles worked in the SH setting and applied the simulation design used by the originators of the proportional SH model [14]; here, due to the very nature of the model, survival times are generated such that the corresponding distribution function has mass at infinity. The algorithm in [14] generated failure times of one event type from a subdistribution (with mass at infinity) and failure times of the competing events conditional on the cause. The algorithm is therefore related to the one used in [32–34]. In Appendix A.1, we present a CSH-driven algorithm than simulates competing risks data from a proportional SH model.

Next, we extended the literature search to Biometrics, Biometrika, Lifetime Data Analysis and Computational Statistics and Data Analysis. We decided to concentrate the search on articles published since (and including) 2000, as the initial literature search in *Statistics in Medicine* had indicated this to be a relevant time interval. Also, focusing on articles published since 2000 should favour models based on counting processes and, hence, hazards instead of latent failure times. Details of the extended review are given in Table I. For comparison, we have also reported the respective results for articles published in *Statistics in Medicine* since 2000. Overall, the extended review confirmed the picture of the initial literature search. We could not identify the simulation algorithm for two articles [35, 36] published in Biometrics and for one article [37] published in Biometrika; reference [35] considered competing risks data to arise from latent failure times. One Biometrics article [38] and one Biometrika article [39] generated data both conditional on the cause and from latent times.

## 3. COMPETING RISKS

### 3.1. The model

Following, e.g. [1; 2, Chapter 8.3; 3; 11, Chapter IV.4], we model competing risks as a multistate process, see also [40]: Consider the competing risks process  $(X_t)_{t \geq 0}$  of Figure 1, denoting the

Table I. Articles published in *Biometrics*, *Biometrika*, *Lifetime Data Analysis*, *Computational Statistics and Data Analysis* and *Statistics in Medicine* since 2000 featuring the term 'competing risk' or 'competing risks' in the title and/or in the key words.

Journal	# Articles w. simulation	Latent failure	Conditional on cause	Constant CSHs	Fine and Gray	Unknown
		(per cent of articles with simulation)				
Biometrics	28	14 (73.7 per cent)	2 (10.5 per cent)	1 (5.3 per cent)	1 (5.3 per cent)	2 (10.5 per cent)
Biometrika	10	3 (33.3 per cent)	4 (44.4 per cent)	2 (22.2 per cent)	0 (0 per cent)	1 (11.1 per cent)
CSDA	6	3 (75 per cent)	1 (25 per cent)	0 (0 per cent)	0 (0 per cent)	0 (0 per cent)
LiDA	16	9 (56.2 per cent)	7 (77.8 per cent)	1 (11.1 per cent)	1 (11.1 per cent)	0 (0 per cent)
SiM	47	25 (53.2 per cent)	15 (60 per cent)	3 (12 per cent)	3 (12 per cent)	4 (16 per cent)

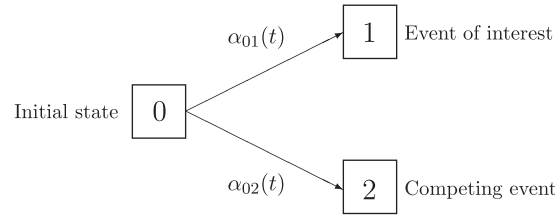


Figure 1. Competing risks model with CSHs  $\alpha_{0i}$ ,  $i = 1, 2$ .

state an individual is in for every point in time,  $X_t \in \{0, 1, 2\}$ . An individual is in state 0 (i.e.  $X_t = 0$ ) as long as none of the competing events 1 or 2 has occurred. The individual moves to state 1, if the event of interest occurs. State 2 denotes the other competing event. Observation of the competing risks process  $(X_t)_{t \geq 0}$  is subject to censoring by  $C$ . The competing risks process moves out of the initial state 0 at the survival time  $T$ ,  $T = \inf\{t > 0 | X_t \neq 0\}$ , and the cause of failure is simply the state  $X_T$  the process enters at time  $T$ ,  $X_T \in \{1, 2\}$ . The observed data will be  $(\min(T, C), \mathbf{1}(T \leq C) \cdot X_T)$ , where  $\mathbf{1}(\cdot)$  denotes the indicator function.

Note that in this description of competing risks and the observed data, the possible causes of failure 1 and 2 are simply the possible values of one random variable,  $X_T$ ; hence, the concept of (in)dependence of random variables does not apply. Therefore, the question whether or not the competing causes are independent is without content in this setting except for the trivial statement

$$P(X_T = i, X_T = i) = P(X_T = i) \neq P(X_T = i) \cdot P(X_T = i)$$

For simulation purposes, this entails that there is no dependence structure to be specified.

Our proposed simulation design builds on the following important fact: The stochastic behaviour of the competing risks process is completely determined through the CSHs  $\alpha_{0i}(t)$ ,  $i = 1, 2$  [11, Chapter II.6],

$$\alpha_{0i}(t)dt := P(T \in dt, X_T = i | T \geq t), \quad i = 1, 2 \quad (1)$$

where we write  $dt$  both for the length of the infinitesimal interval  $[t, t+dt)$  and the interval itself. Notably,  $\alpha_{0i}(t)$ ,  $i = 1, 2$ , completely determine the survival function  $P(T > t) = \exp(-\int_0^t \alpha_{01}(u) + \alpha_{02}(u) du)$ , and the sum of the CSHs equals the all-cause hazard, i.e.  $(\alpha_{01}(t) + \alpha_{02}(t)) \cdot dt = P(T \in dt | T \geq t)$ . The CSHs also completely determine the CIFs  $P(T \leq t, X_T = i) = \int_0^t P(T > u-) \alpha_{0i}(u) du$ ,  $i = 1, 2$ , where the latter depend on both  $\alpha_{01}(t)$  and  $\alpha_{02}(t)$  through  $P(T > u-)$ .

In a simulation study, we will need to decide what type of event occurs at the survival time  $T$ . For this, the following observation is crucial: *Given* an individual fails at time  $T = t$ , the probability that the individual fails from cause 1 is

$$\begin{aligned} P(X_T = 1 | T \in dt, T \geq t) &= \frac{P(T \in dt, X_T = 1 | T \geq t)}{P(T \in dt | T \geq t)} \\ &= \frac{\alpha_{01}(t)}{\alpha_{01}(t) + \alpha_{02}(t)} \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

There is a very meaningful interpretation of equation (2): Think of the CSHs as momentary forces of transition, moving along the arrows in Figure 1. Figuratively speaking, the CSHs are forces that

draw an individual out of the initial state 0 and towards the competing risks states. Assuming that an individual fails at time  $T=t$ , the probability that the failure cause is 1 equals the proportion that the CSH for failure 1 at time  $t$  contributes to the all-cause hazard  $\alpha_{01}(t) + \alpha_{02}(t)$ , which draws at the individual. (An analogous interpretation holds for the factors of the partial likelihood in a Cox model [41, 42].)

We have formulated the competing risks process in continuous time, but it is worth pointing out that this formulation transfers to discrete time by simply putting [11, p. 94]

$$\alpha_{0i}(t) = P(X_t = i | T \geq t), \quad i = 1, 2 \quad (3)$$

### 3.2. The simulation design

Again, we refer to the recent excellent articles by Burton *et al.* [43] on planning simulation studies (including some material on survival data) and by Bender *et al.* [31] on more specific survival issues.

As claimed above, simulating competing risks data CSH-driven now (with the framework of Section 3.1) is easy:

1. Specify the CSHs  $\alpha_{01}(t)$  and  $\alpha_{02}(t)$  as functions of time, possibly depending on covariate values [31].
2. Simulate survival times  $T$  with all-cause hazard  $\alpha_{01}(t) + \alpha_{02}(t)$ .
3. For a simulated survival time  $T$  run a binomial experiment, which decides with probability  $\alpha_{01}(T)/(\alpha_{01}(T) + \alpha_{02}(T))$  on cause 1.
4. Additionally (and as usual with survival data), generate censoring times  $C$ .

If we wish to simulate competing risks data with more than two competing event states, we will need to substitute the binomial experiment of step 3 by a multinomial experiment.

## 4. EXAMPLE

This section is organized as follows: In Section 4.1 we specify proportional CSH models with a binary covariate. The motivation for this model specification is given in Section 4.2. We will find that the effect of the covariate on the CIFs is difficult to tell from the CSH models, which leads us to considering proportional SH models explained in Section 4.3. However, proportional SHs will in general not hold, if proportional CSHs hold. Still, results from a proportional SHs analysis are meaningful in terms of the least false parameter, a time-averaged effect (Section 4.4). While the least false parameter is hard to tract analytically, we can easily approximate it through simulations. This is done in Section 4.5. Finally, a second simulation study is reported in Section 4.6, where we investigate how well the least false parameter may be estimated in a concrete study setting.

### 4.1. Model specification

Consider the following specification of a competing risks model:

$$\alpha_{01;Z=0}(t) = \frac{0.09}{t+1} \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha_{02;Z=0}(t) = 0.024 \cdot t \quad (4)$$

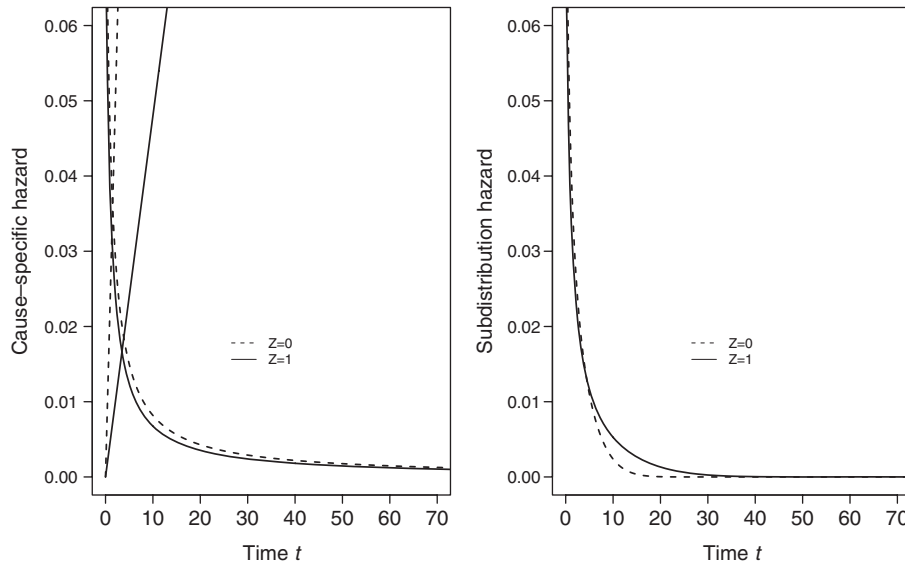


Figure 2. CSHs (left plot) and SH (right plot): the linear functions in the left plot are the CSHs  $\alpha_{02;Z=}(t)$ , the hyperbolic functions in the left plot are the CSHs  $\alpha_{01;Z=}(t)$ . The right plot displays the SHs  $\lambda_{Z=}(t)$ .

where  $Z$  denotes a baseline covariate  $Z$  with possible values 0 and 1. We assume that the effect of  $Z=1$  follows separate proportional CSH models [44, Chapter 8.4; 2, Chapter 8] as follows:

$$\alpha_{01;Z=1}(t) = 0.825 \cdot \alpha_{01;Z=0}(t) \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha_{02;Z=1}(t) = 0.2 \cdot \alpha_{02;Z=0}(t) \quad (5)$$

The CSHs are plotted in Figure 2 (left).

#### 4.2. Motivation

The choice of models (4) and (5) is motivated by the prospective cohort study ONKO-KISS [13, 45], which assesses risk factors for the occurrence of bloodstream infections (BSI) during neutropenia. Neutropenia is a condition where a patient has a low count of neutrophils (one type of white blood cells, which are the cells that primarily avert infections). Patients treated for severe hematologic diseases by peripheral blood stem-cell transplantation become neutropenic immediately after the transplantation. Occurrence of BSI during neutropenia constitutes a severe complication and substantially endangers the success of the therapy. Allogeneic transplant type is considered to be a risk factor for the occurrence of BSI as opposed to autologous transplants.

In the ONKO-KISS setting, every patient enters state 0 of the multistate picture in Figure 1 at time origin  $t=0$  following transplantation. The event state 1 of interest is occurrence of BSI during neutropenia; observation of BSI may be precluded by occurrence of the competing event state 2, i.e. end of neutropenia without prior BSI. Thus,  $T$  denotes the time until BSI or end of neutropenia, whatever comes first, and  $X_T=1$  denotes the failure type of interest, i.e. BSI, and  $X_T=2$  denotes the competing failure type, i.e. end of neutropenia. In addition, let  $Z=1$  denote allogeneic transplant type, and let  $Z=0$  denote autologous transplants.



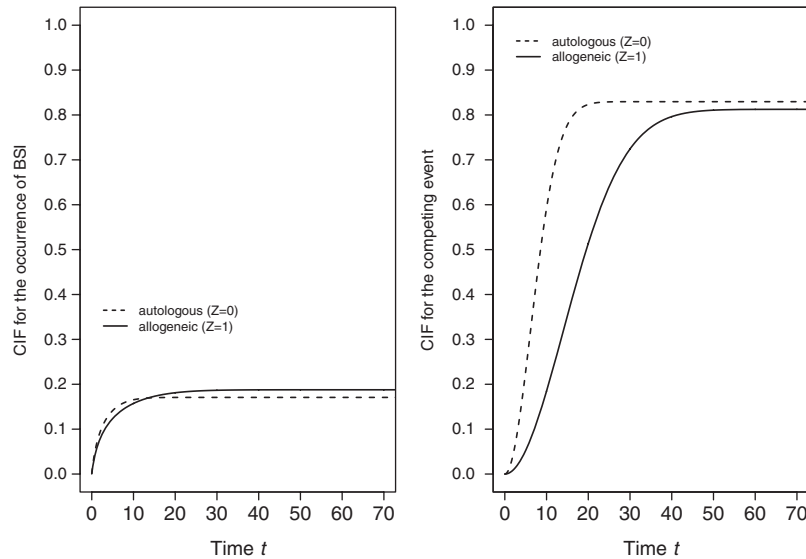


Figure 3. CIFs for BSI ( $X_T = 1$ , left picture) and for end of neutropenia ( $X_T = 2$ , right picture) based on the model from Section 4.1.

In the analysis of the ONKO-KISS data, we found that allogeneic transplants increase the CIF for BSI,  $P(T \leq t, X_T = 1)$ . This was, however, not due to an increase of the CSH for BSI,  $\alpha_{01}(t)$ . In fact, we found that  $Z = 1$  displayed a decreasing effect not only on  $\alpha_{01}(t)$ , but also an even more pronounced decreasing effect on the competing CSH  $\alpha_{02}(t)$  for end of neutropenia. In addition, we found that the competing cumulative baseline hazard  $\int_0^t \alpha_{02; Z=0}(u) du$  to be of a greater magnitude than the cumulative baseline hazard  $\int_0^t \alpha_{01; Z=0}(u) du$ . To sum up, this entails that most patients quit neutropenia without acquiring BSI. Patients with allogeneic transplants stay longer in the initial state. As allogeneic transplants do not reduce  $\alpha_{01}(t)$  as pronounced as they reduce  $\alpha_{02}(t)$ , there will eventually be more patients with allogeneic transplants who acquire BSI than patients with autologous transplants.

This situation is reflected in our model specifications (4) and (5), which were chosen using fractional polynomials [46] with an emphasis on simple functional forms. The resulting CIFs, stratified for  $Z = 0$  and  $Z = 1$ , respectively, are displayed in Figure 3.

Details of the analysis of the ONKO-KISS data are reported in [13]. We note that the model specification of Section 4.1 are only *motivated* by the ONKO-KISS data and are not meant as a parametric model for occurrence of BSI. We also note that the CSH ratios reported in [13] are similar to those of (5), but that the focus of our model specifications was on simple functional forms.

#### 4.3. Subdistribution hazard analysis

The phenomenon that a risk factor may decrease all CSHs but may eventually lead to an increase in terms of the CIF is somewhat counterintuitive and difficult to communicate in applications. This has led to the development of the proportional SH model, which yields a result that is directly interpretable in terms of the CIF. Briefly, the SH  $\lambda(t)$  is a hazard attached to the CIF of interest

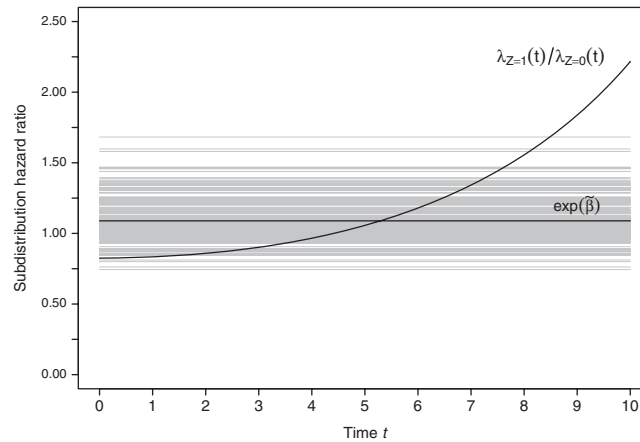


Figure 4. Time-dependent SH ratio  $\lambda_{Z=1}(t)/\lambda_{Z=0}(t)$  and time-averaged SH ratio  $\exp(\tilde{\beta})$ . The least false parameter  $\tilde{\beta}$  was numerically approximated through simulations as described in Section 4.5. The grey lines display the results of every third simulation.

$P(T \leq t, X_T = 1)$  [47], i.e.

$$\lambda(t) = -\frac{d}{dt} \ln(1 - P(T \leq t, X_T = 1)) \quad (6)$$

The CIF of interest then is a function of  $\lambda(t)$  only,

$$P(T \leq t, X_T = 1) = 1 - \exp\left(-\int_0^t \lambda(u) du\right) \quad (7)$$

and we have [17]

$$\alpha_{01}(t) = \left(1 + \frac{P(T \leq t, X_T = 2)}{P(T > t)}\right) \cdot \lambda(t) \quad (8)$$

Fine and Gray proposed a proportional SH model [14], the results of which are directly interpretable in terms of the CIF as a consequence of (7). However, as a consequence of (8), the SHs will usually not be proportional, if proportional CSHs hold [16]. The SHs  $\lambda_{Z=z}(t)$  for baseline covariate values  $z=0, 1$  are plotted in Figure 2 (right). Note that  $\alpha_{01;Z=z}(t) > \lambda_{Z=z}(t)$  as a consequence of (8). Figure 4 shows the time-dependent SH ratio for times  $t \leq 10$ , where  $\lambda_{Z=0}(t)$  is not yet almost equal to 0, cf. Figures 2 (right) and 3 (left).

#### 4.4. Least false parameter

Consider the proportional SH model

$$\lambda_{Z=1}(t) = \exp(\beta) \cdot \lambda_{Z=0}(t) \quad (9)$$

Under our model specifications (4) and (5), model (9) is misspecified, i.e. does not hold. Still, a proportional SHs analysis will yield an estimate  $\hat{\beta}$  that is asymptotically consistent for the least

false parameter  $\tilde{\beta}$  (which is unequal  $\beta$ ) [12, 48]. We can interpret  $\exp(\tilde{\beta})$  as a time-averaged subdistribution hazard ratio. However,  $\tilde{\beta}$  is analytically hardly tractable. But as  $\hat{\beta}$  is an asymptotically consistent estimate of  $\tilde{\beta}$ , we can approximate the least false parameter through simulations. The approximation is reported in the following subsection.

#### 4.5. Simulation study I

The aim of this subsection is to numerically approximate the least false parameter  $\tilde{\beta}$ , using the fact that it is asymptotically consistently estimated by  $\hat{\beta}$ . See e.g. [26, Chapter I] on using simulation for numerical approximation. Simulations were done with R [49]. Survival times  $T$  were generated via the inversion method, using the R-function `unroot()` for numerical inversion. On the basis of the ONKO-KISS study, we set  $P(Z=1)=0.565$ . We decided to perform each simulation with 10 000 individuals, as the aim of the present simulation was to numerically approximate the least false parameter rather than to mimic a particular study setting with probably a smaller number of individuals. We used the following stop criterion: We first ran 100 simulations and then applied the following stepwise procedure:

1. We computed the arithmetic mean of the results from the proportional SH analysis.
2. We added 100 new simulations and updated the arithmetic mean.
3. If the updated mean differed from the previous value by more than 0.1 per cent, we added another 100 simulations and so forth. Otherwise, the procedure stopped.

Using this criterion, we stopped after 500 simulations. The least false parameter  $\tilde{\beta}$  was approximately equal to 0.085. The time-averaged SH ratio  $\exp(\tilde{\beta}) \approx 1.09$  is illustrated in Figure 4 along with results from every third simulation. Based on the 500 simulations, the empirical standard error was estimated as 0.007. An asymptotic 95 per cent-confidence interval for  $\exp(\tilde{\beta})$  based on normal approximation [12] is then [1.07, 1.10].

Interpreting  $\exp(\tilde{\beta})$  as a time-averaged SH ratio, this result indicates a slight increase of the CIF for BSI for patients with allogeneic transplants, which is in line with Figures 3 and 4.

#### 4.6. Simulation study II

The aim of this subsection is to investigate how well the least false parameter may be estimated in a setting like in the original ONKO-KISS study. For simplicity, we decided to compute 1000 simulations. Each simulation comprised 1616 individuals as in the original ONKO-KISS analysis [45]. In each simulation, we performed a proportional SH analysis and recorded the point estimate  $\hat{\beta}$  and its model-based variance estimator  $\widehat{\text{var}}(\hat{\beta})$ . We compared the point estimates with the numerical approximation obtained in the previous subsection, and we also compared the model-based variance estimator with the empirical variance obtained from the point estimates in the 1000 simulations.

Finally, we studied the coverage of the confidence intervals  $\hat{\beta} \pm q_{0.975} \cdot \sqrt{\widehat{\text{var}}(\hat{\beta})}$ , where  $q_{0.975} \approx 1.96$  is the 0.975-quantile of the standard normal distribution.

The estimate  $\hat{\beta}$  of the least false parameter was on average 0.90, corresponding to a time-averaged SH ratio estimate of  $\exp(\hat{\beta}) \approx 1.09$ . The model-based variance estimator  $\widehat{\text{var}}(\hat{\beta})$  was on average 0.0145 and the empirical variance of  $\hat{\beta}$  was 0.0143. The coverage of the model-based 95 per cent-confidence intervals was 95.3 per cent.

## 5. DISCUSSION

We have presented a design for simulating competing risks data, which is as easy as any other, but relies on those identifiable quantities only, which form the basis of modern competing risks statistics. As a consequence, the proposed simulation design adds to our understanding of the competing risks process, which we have demonstrated computing the least false parameter of a misspecified proportional SH model, if proportional CSH models hold.

We should note that simulating the failure cause for competing risks data using the predominant latent failure time model is not wrong, although opposed to understanding what CSHs do; in particular, the identifiability problem of the latent failure time model implies that we may use independent latent times to generate the data, as we cannot tell the dependency structure from what is being observed. However, the notorious question of the dependency structure is rendered superfluous with the CSH-based simulation design. In this context, we also note that the proposed simulation design passes the test of Occam's razor (e.g. [50, p. 435]), while the latent failure time-based one usually does not.

Another advantage of the proposed simulation design is that it immediately generalizes to more complex multistate models with a random number of transitions, see also [9]. Here, we would not know the 'reservoir' of latent times needed for simulation, but transition hazard-based simulation is straightforward through a series of competing risks-type experiments. This is, e.g. of interest for simulating time-dependent covariates [8], a current research topic [51].

A further worthwhile topic of future research is studying the type of CSH models that give rise to a proportional SH model based on the CSH-driven simulation algorithm for proportional SH model data that we have given in the Appendix and that appears to be new to the literature. However, such work has been beyond the scope of the present manuscript.

In closing, we comment on a number of issues regarding our example: Using the concept of the least false parameter, we heavily borrowed from Hjort's 'agnostic point of view' towards model assumptions [12]: For a concrete data analysis, this would entail that one would not claim a proportional effect of a covariate on the SH (or on the CSHs, for that matter). But one would profit from the simple structure of a proportional hazards model in that the results display an average effect on the SH (or CSH) scale. If one is willing to take this agnostic point of view, the aim of the analysis would be a synthesis analysis, potentially first on the CSH scale, then (in a further summarizing step) on the SH, i.e. on the CIF scale.

The results from the second simulation study in Section 4.6 show that such a summary analysis is feasible in a concrete study setting and under an interpretationally challenging CSH constellation. Significance, however, is a different and quite subtle issue: In the original data analysis, we found significant effects on the CSHs (reflected in (5)), leading to crossing CIFs (as in Figure 3, left) and an least false parameter, which should presumably be somewhat larger than zero (as approximated in Section 4.5). However, in such a situation, we cannot necessarily expect the estimate of the least false parameter to be significantly different from zero; for the original ONKO-KISS data, we found a time-averaged SH ratio 1.1([0.89, 1.4]) [13, Table I]. The variance estimates from the second simulation study confirm that significance of the least false parameter estimate is yet another issue under the given CSH constellation. If the aim of the analysis is to verify that the CIFs cross, confidence bands should be studied [27].

While the summarizing approach in terms of the least false parameter is useful, it does not dispose of model choice considerations. This is, e.g. a concern, if the aim of the analysis is prediction [52] or studying time-varying effects [53]. A further issue inherent to competing risks

is that proportional cause-specific and proportional all-cause hazards models preclude one another, since the all-cause hazard is the sum of all CSHs. This is a concern for hazard-based modelling; Klein [54] therefore argued in favour of Aalen's additive hazard model [11, Chapter VII.4].

We also wish to note that the model specification of Section 4.1 is not meant as a parametric model for occurrence of BSI during neutropenia for, say, prediction purposes. Rather, our aim was to illustrate the usefulness of the proposed simulation design in a specific competing risks setting, motivated by a concrete data example, but with the emphasis on simple functional form. We have also refrained from simulating censoring times, which is easy and as with standard survival simulation. Our example has also been meant to illustrate the special difficulties encountered in competing risks as well as the relative merits of CSH- and SH-based analyses, respectively. We note that, in a concrete data analysis, the least false parameter of a misspecified SH model (or of a misspecified CSH model) may also be approximated using the bootstrap on the data at hand.

## APPENDIX A

### A.1. Simulation from a proportional subdistribution hazard model

This appendix describes a simulation design for generating competing risks data based on the CSHs, such that the SH (6) of the CIF for type 1 events follows a proportional SH model

$$\lambda(t; z) = \lambda_0(t) \exp(\beta^\top z) \quad (\text{A1})$$

where  $\beta$  is a real  $k$ -variate vector of regression coefficients,  $z$  is the value of a real  $k$ -variate covariate and  $\lambda_0(t)$  is the subdistribution baseline hazard. The algorithm operates in three steps: We first determine the baseline SH and CSHs. Next, we determine models for the CSHs. This enables us to finally call the algorithm of Section 3.2.

Consider specifying the baseline situation  $z=0$  first. We write  $\alpha_{01;0}(t)$  and  $\alpha_{02;0}(t)$  for the baseline CSHs,  $A_{01;0}(t)$  and  $A_{02;0}(t)$  for the cumulative baseline CSHs and  $\Lambda_0(t)$  for the cumulative baseline SH. We have to distinguish between three ways to specify the baseline situation:

1. We choose  $\alpha_{01;0}(t)$  and  $\alpha_{02;0}(t)$  and compute  $\lambda_0(t)$  from equation (8).
2. We choose  $\alpha_{01;0}(t)$  and  $\lambda_0(t)$ . Next, we have to compute  $\alpha_{02;0}(t)$ : Following equation (8), we have

$$\lambda_0(t) \exp(-\Lambda_0(t)) = \exp(-A_{01;0}(t) - A_{02;0}(t)) \alpha_{01;0}(t) \quad (\text{A2})$$

An easy calculation shows that we may compute  $\alpha_{02;0}(t)$  as follows:

$$\alpha_{02;0}(t) = \lambda_0(t) - \alpha_{01;0}(t) - \frac{d}{dt} \ln(\lambda_0(t) / \alpha_{01;0}(t)) \quad (\text{A3})$$

3. We choose  $\alpha_{02;0}(t)$  and  $\lambda_0(t)$ . Next, we have to compute  $\alpha_{01;0}(t)$ . Following equation (A2), we have

$$\exp(-A_{01;0}(t)) \alpha_{01;0}(t) = \lambda_0(t) \exp(-\Lambda_0(t) + A_{02;0}(t)) \quad (\text{A4})$$

Applying (in this order) integration,  $\ln$  and  $d/dt$  to equation (A4) yields

$$\alpha_{01;0}(t) = \frac{\lambda_0(t) \exp(-\Lambda_0(t) + A_{02;0}(t))}{1 - \int_0^t \lambda_0(u) \exp(-\Lambda_0(u) + A_{02;0}(u)) du} \quad (\text{A5})$$

In the second step, we need to specify CSH models  $\alpha_{01}(t; z)$  and  $\alpha_{02}(t; z)$  given the baseline CSHs and SH, such that model (A1) holds. We choose either a model  $\alpha_{01}(t; z)$  or a model  $\alpha_{02}(t; z)$ . This could be, e.g. a Cox model, but may also be some other model, say an additive CSH model [54]. We have to distinguish two situations: If we choose a model  $\alpha_{01}(t; z)$ , we determine the model  $\alpha_{02}(t; z)$  as in equation (A3), i.e.

$$\alpha_{02}(t; z) = \lambda(t; z) - \alpha_{01}(t; z) - \frac{d}{dt} \ln(\lambda(t; z)/\alpha_{01}(t; z)) \quad (\text{A6})$$

If, however, we choose a model  $\alpha_{02}(t; z)$ , we determine the model  $\alpha_{01}(t; z)$  as in equation (A5), i.e.

$$\alpha_{01}(t; z) = \frac{\lambda(t; z) \exp(-\Lambda(t; z) + A_{02}(t; z))}{1 - \int_0^t \lambda(u; z) \exp(-\Lambda(u; z) + A_{02}(u; z)) du} \quad (\text{A7})$$

In the third and final step, we can now use the algorithm of Section 3.2.

In practice, one will usually first determine the baseline CSHs, which can essentially be any ‘well behaving’ (differentiable, integrable) non-negative function, whereas choice of  $\lambda_0(t)$  is complicated by the fact that  $1 - \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \exp(-\Lambda_0(t)) = P(X_T = 1 | Z = 0)$ . Next, specifying models (A1) and  $\alpha_{01}(t; z)$  and using equation (A6) is the most convenient option. Note that equations (A3), (A5)–(A7) are subject to the constraint that they result in non-negative functions.

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